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# Stateful Identity-Based Encryption Scheme: Faster Encryption and Decryption 

[Extended Abstract]

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we first present the notion of stateful identitybased encryption (IBE) and then extend standard security definitions for IBE to the stateful setting. After that, we demonstrate a concrete stateful IBE scheme, whose security meets the strongest definition in the setting in random oracle model, and whose encryption and decryption are very efficient, compared to existing IBEs: one pairing each for encryption and decryption.


## Keywords

IBE, stateful encryption, provable security, ROM

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Motivation. Recently, Bellare et al. [2] showed how to encrypt with just one 160 -bit exponentiation in some publickey encryption schemes. This is a dramatic improvement with respect to encryption speed, since most previous schemes require more exponentiations. For example, the KurosawaDesmedt variant [11] of the Cramer-Shoup public-key encryption schemes [8], which is considered one of the most efficient schemes so far, needs three exponentiations (or more) for encryption. The reason why the public-key encryption schemes of Bellare et al. [2] achieve such encryption efficiency is from the idea of making them stateful. Namely, some randomness and exponentiations are kept unchanged throughout many encryptions as state, so that the encryption algorithms do not have to compute the values again and again any more.

[^0][^1]Bellare et al. [2] have focused on the case of public-key encryption (PKE) schemes. As with the usual (i.e. nonstateful) PKE ones, the management of the public keys may cause obstacles for deployment of stateful PKE schemes in the real world, since each user must be securely linked to his public key. To avoid the obstacles related to the publickey management, in this paper, we show how to use the idea of stateful encryption in another important asymmetric setting: Identity-Based Encryption (IBE). In particular, we first define the model of security for stateful IBE scheme and then present a concrete stateful IBE scheme whose security meets the (strongest) definition in the model, while its encryption and decryption algorithms are also extremely efficient. In particular, we show how to encrypt securely with just one pairing in identity-based setting. Let us now look at the above statements in some more details.
The Stateful Model and Security Definition for Stateful IBE Schemes. Briefly, there are two security issues to be considered. Roughly speaking, the first issue, which is the same as in definitions in literature, is the coalition of users should not compromise the privacy of any other user. As with the definitions in the literature[4], [7], this issue is addressed by giving the adversary against stateful IBE schemes a private key extraction oracle.
However, using a stateful IBE scheme, a sender maintains state information which can be used throughout his/her many encryptions (e.g., in a work day.) This use of state causes some path for attack not covered by the classical definitions of security for (non-stateful) IBE schemes (e.g., IND-ID-CCA [4]). This fact leads us to the second issue below.
The second issue, which is raised only in stateful model, is that encrypted messages can be dependent, since they might depend on the same or related state (which is unknown to the adversary), and hence the ability of seeing numerous ciphertexts (from one sender to many receivers, namely identities) might lead to the ability of compromising the privacy of the sender. We address this path of attack by giving the adversary an encryption oracle, from which it can adaptively obtain ciphertexts computed under the sender's state, and any identity ID, any message of its choice.
Definitions captured the both issues are provided in Section 2. We also make some comparison and contrast with Bellare et al.'s definitions, which concentrate on public-key encryption schemes. As will become evident, stateful en-
cryption apparently fits IBEs more than PKEs. Below, when saying a stateful IBE scheme is IND-ID-CCA secure, we mean that it meets the corresponding definition in Section 2.

A Concrete Stateful IBE Scheme: SIdent. This is a stateful variant of the Boneh-Franklin IBE scheme called BasicIdent [4], which was proven to be IND-ID-CPA secure in non-stateful setting. On the contrary, we show in this paper that the variant enjoys being IND-ID-CCA secure in the stateful setting, while being able to save two exponentiations in encryption. Indeed, SIdent requires (at most) one pairing for encryption, while its original version needs two exponentiations and one pairing. Costs for decryption in the both scheme are the same, which is one pairing. Note that since pairing computation is more expensive than that of exponentiation in general, it would be more desirable to reduce the number of pairings. However, we comment that the use of pairing is tightly related to the BDH assumption (and related ones), so one pairing in the encryption and decryption of SIdent would be unavoidable.

At the same CCA-security level, we would like to compare the proposed SIdent with the fully secure version of BasicIdent, which is called FullIdent in [4]. With respect to computation cost, SIdent is much more efficient, beating Fullident at a margin of two exponentiations in encryption and one exponentiation in decryption. (The latter requires two exponentiations (also one pairing) for encryption and one exponentiation (also one pairing) for decryption.)
With respect to security assumption, the security of the scheme SIdent is based on the Gap Bilinear Diffie-Hellman (Gap-BDH) assumption, while that of FullIdent is relied on the BDH assumption, which is potentially weaker. However, the factor loss in our reduction for SIdent, approximately $q_{H}$, is tighter than that in the latter, approximately $q_{H}^{3}{ }^{1}$, where $q_{H}$ is the bound for the number of hash queries (to any hash function in the schemes). This result has its own interest, since a tighter reduction from a given assumption can be preferred to a loose reduction from a potentially weaker assumption.

Our Contributions. In summary of what have been discussed above, the main contributions of this paper are: extending the security notion of usual IBE schemes to the case of stateful IBE schemes, and showing that the security is achievable and meaningful by demonstrating the concrete scheme SIdent whose security meets the IND-ID-CCA definition in the stateful setting. Furthermore, the scheme SIdent is extremely efficient: only one pairing each for encryption and decryption.

Random Oracle Model. For schemes in the random oracle (RO) model [5], any of the constituent algorithms may have access to a RO, and in the security game, the adversary has access to it as well. We will use this model in the security analysis of SIdent.

## 2. DEFINITIONS

${ }^{1}$ This value is borrowed from [10] (full version, p. 9). That work showed a flaw in the change from BasicIdent to FullIdent via the Fujisaki-Okamoto transformation [9]. Our work does not use the transformation, so it does not fall into the mistake.

In this section, we formalize the definition of stateful IBE scheme, and security notions for it. We then compare and contrast one of the security definitions with its counterpart in public-key setting.

Stateful IBE Scheme. A stateful identity-based encryption scheme StIBE $=($ Setup, Extract, NwSt, Enc, Dec) is specified by five algorithms (all possibly randomized except the last).

Setup: takes a security parameter $\kappa$ and returns system parameters params, which is publicly known, and master key msk, which is kept secret.

Extract: takes as input params, msk, an identity $I D$, and returns a private key $S K_{I D}$.

NwSt: (New State) takes as input params and outputs the system state $s t$, which will be used for encryption.

Enc: takes params, an identity $I D$, a message $m$, and a system state $s t$, and returns a ciphertext $C$ and an update system state st (may be the same with the previous one or not.)

Dec: takes as input a ciphertext $C$, and identity $I D$ and a private key $S K_{I D}$, and returns a message $m$ (may be reject).

As we can see, there are some differences between a stateful IBE scheme with a (non-stateful) IBE scheme, which are in NwSt, and Enc. NwSt creating system state st, which is used by Enc, is the basic algorithm distinguishing a stateful IBE scheme from a non-stateful one. The algorithm Enc also returns an update system state beside a ciphertext. In all concrete stateful IBE schemes later in this paper, Enc does not modify the state and just returns the same state.
IND-ID-CCA Security for Stateful IBE. To define IND-IDCCA security of a stateful IBE scheme StIBE = (Setup, Extract, NwSt, Enc, Dec), we consider an adversary $A$ played with the following (ind-id-cca) game:

- Setup: The algorithm Setup is run with a security parameter $\kappa$ generating system parameters params and master key msk. params is given to $A$, while msk is kept secret.
- State Generation: The game runs the algorithm NwSt with input params to generate a state $s t$, which will be used for encryption.
- Phase 1: The adversary $A$ adaptively issues queries $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{m}$ of the following types:
- Extraction query $I D_{i}$. The game responds by running algorithm Extract to generate the private key $S K_{I D_{i}}$, and returns this private key to $A$.
- Decryption query $\left(I D_{i}, C_{i}\right)$. The game returns $\operatorname{Dec}\left(S K_{I D_{i}}, C_{i}\right)$, where $S K_{I D_{i}}$ is obtained from Extract.
- Encryption query $\left(I D_{i}, m_{i}\right)$. The game runs the algorithm Enc to encrypt $m_{i}$ using identity $I D_{i}$ under the encryption state st. The output of Enc is a ciphertext and a state, but only the ciphertext is given to $A$.
- Challenge: The adversary outputs two equal-length plaintexts $m_{0}, m_{1}$ and an identity $I D^{*}$ on which it wants to be challenged. The only constraint is that $I D^{*}$ did not appear in any private key extraction query in Phase 1. The game in turn picks a random bit $b \in\{0,1\}$ and computes $\left(C^{*}, s t\right) \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Enc}($ params, $\left.I D^{*}, m_{b}, s t\right)$, and only $C^{*}$ is returned to $A$.
- Phase 2: The adversary may adaptively issue more queries $q_{m+1}, \ldots, q_{n}$ of the following types:
- Extraction query $I D_{i}\left(\neq I D^{*}\right)$. The game responds as in Phase 1.
- Decryption query $\left(I D_{i}, C_{i}\right) \neq\left(I D^{*}, C^{*}\right)$. The game responds as in Phase 1.
- Encryption query $\left(I D_{i}, m_{i}\right)$. The game responds as in Phase 1.
- Guess: Finally, $A$ outputs a bit $b^{\prime}$ as its guess of $b$.

Define the ind-id-cca-advantage of $A$ :

$$
\operatorname{Adv}_{s t I B E}^{i n d-i d-c c a}(A)=\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[b^{\prime}=b\right]-\frac{1}{2}\right| .
$$

We say that stIBE is IND-ID-CCA secure if the advantage of any polynomial time adversary $A$ is negligible in the security parameter $\kappa$.
The above notion follows the notion in the literature [4], except that the adversary $A$ now can have its own messages encrypted with its maliciously-chosen identities, under a fixed (and unknown to $A$ ) encryption state. This additional feature aims to capture the adversary ability of observing encrypted messages which are dependent under the same or related system state, as discussed in the second issue mentioned in Section 1.

IND-ID-CPA / IND-sID-CPA / IND-sID-CCA. The above definition can be modified to obtain more kinds of security in a usual manner. Briefly, in an IND-ID-CPA game, the adversary $A$ is not allowed to submit $\left(I D_{i}, C_{i}\right)$ for decryption as above. IND-sID-CPA game is the same as the IND-ID-CPA one, except that $A$ must output the target identity $I D^{*}$ at the beginning of the game, before Setup is run. Allowing the decryption query ( $I D_{i}, C_{i}$ ) in the IND-sID-CPA game gives us IND-sID-CCA game. Note that the notion of selective-ID (sID) is first introduced by Canetti et al. [7].

Comparison and Contrast with Public-Key Setting. In the first place, security definitions for stateful IBEs are more natural, compared to its counterparts for stateful PKE. In details,

- In public-key setting [2], an adversary is challenged on a random,"honest" public key. The adversary is able to create malicious public-keys via an oracle, and can have messages encrypted under these public-keys (and the honest public-key also) via another oracle. These correspond to the encryption oracle in the above notion, although in ID-based setting, the adversary is challenged on a target identity of its own choice. The fact that all identities (except the challenge one) might be malicious simplifies the security definition for stateful IBE schemes, since we do not need the oracle creating malicious public-key any more.
- Also, in [2], Bellare et al. separate the unknown secret key (USK) model from the known secret key (KSK) model. Briefly, the KSK model means the adversary has to possess a corresponding secret key when registering a malicious public-key, while in the USK model it does not have to. They needed the KSK model for the security proof of the stateful variant of the Kurosawa-Desmedt encryption scheme [11]. In contrast, in ID-based setting, the adversary knows the corresponding private key $S K_{I D}$ of all identity ID $\left(\neq I D^{*}\right)$ via the key extraction oracle, so the separation between the USK and KSK model is not necessary any more.

In the second place, the fact that the state of stateful IBEs relies on system-wide parameters params, which are used by all identites for encryption and decryption, appears to open more ways to reduce encryption cost, compared to stateful PKEs where each user needs a different public key. We use this fact (together with an algebraic property of bilinear map) to get rid off all exponentiations in SIdent, as will be seen later.
In short, we gain more when using states in IBEs. Although formalized later and can be viewed as an adaptation from PKEs to IBEs, stateful encryption apparently fits IBEs more than PKEs.

An Extended Security Model and Equivalence with the Basic One. The above notion of security is a simplified one, considering only one sender with a fixed encryption state. Like [2], one can consider an extended model where there are many senders with many states, each of which may be reset or compromised. Specifically, the adversary can has access to three more oracles for creating senders with their states, reseting a sender state, and revealing a sender state with a natural restriction that the challenge state cannot be revealed or reset. This extended security notion implies forward-security of the system, namely it retains security even if previous states are compromised. We note that the simplified notion is equivalent to the extended one up to a polynomial loss factor. The equivalence proof is via a standard guessing argument, and is almost identical to its counterpart in [2], so we omit it. We therefore stick to the simplified security notion in the rest of this paper.

## 3. THE SIDENT SCHEME

This section is devoted to presenting the proposed SIdent scheme. We first describe its building blocks, and then the scheme, and finally analyze its security.

Building Blocks. We first describe the building blocks used and the assumptions about them.

- A BDH parameter generator $\mathcal{G}$ whose input is security parameter $\kappa$ and output is a quadruple ( $q, G_{1}, G_{2}, \hat{e}$ ), where $q$ is a prime, $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are cyclic groups of order $q$, and $\hat{e}$ is a pairing from $G_{1} \times G_{1}$ to $G_{2}$. Let $P$ be a random generator of $G_{1}$.
- The BDH problem is: given $(P, a P, b P, c P)$ for $a, b, c \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} Z_{q}$, compute $\hat{e}(P, P)^{a b c}$.
- The decisional BDH (DBDH) assumption is: distinguish the tuples of the form $(P, a P, b P, c P$, $\left.\hat{e}(P, P)^{a b c}\right)$ from those of the form ( $P, a P, b P, c P$,
$Z)$, where $a, b, c \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} Z_{q}$ and $Z \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} G_{2}$. A DBDH oracle $\mathcal{O}_{d b d h}$ is an algorithm which, given ( $P, a P$, $b P, c P, Z)$ as input, outputs 1 if $Z=\hat{e}(P, P)^{a b c}$ and outputs 0 otherwise.
- The Gap-BDH problem is: solve the BDH problem with the help of the DBDH oracle. We assume the Gap-BDH problem is hard with respect to $\mathcal{G}$, captured by defining the gap-bdh-advantage of an adversary $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ as

$$
A d v_{\mathcal{G}}^{g a p-b d h}\left(A_{\mathcal{G}}\right)=\operatorname{Pr}\left[Z=\hat{e}(P, P)^{a b c}\right]
$$

in the following experiment: $P \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} G_{1}^{*} ; a, b, c \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} Z_{q}$; $Z \leftarrow A_{\mathcal{G}}^{\mathcal{O}_{d b d h}}(P, a P, b P, c P)$.

- A symmetric encryption scheme $S E=(S E n c, S D e c)$ with key-length $k$. The scheme is assumed IND-CCA secure, captured by defining the ind-cca-advantage of an adversary $A_{S E}$ as

$$
\operatorname{Adv}_{S E}^{i n d-c c a}\left(A_{S E}\right)=\left|\operatorname{Pr}[d=c]-\frac{1}{2}\right|
$$

in the following experiment: $K \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{k} ; c \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}$; $d \stackrel{\S}{\leftarrow} A_{S E}^{\mathcal{O}}$ where $\mathcal{O}$ is one of the following: $\operatorname{SEnc}(K, \cdot)$, $\operatorname{LOR}(K, \cdot \cdot \cdot, c), \operatorname{SDec}(K, \cdot)$. Here, $\operatorname{LOR}\left(K, m_{0}, m_{1}, c\right)$ returns $C_{s}^{*} \stackrel{\oiint}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{SEnc}\left(K, m_{c}\right) . A_{S E}$ is allowed only one query to this left-or-right oracle, consisting of a pair of equal-length messages, and it is not allowed to query $S \operatorname{Dec}(K, \cdot)$ on $C_{s}^{*}$.
We note that the security for $S E$ is easily and cheaply obtained via encrypt-then-mac generic composition [3].

Scheme and Security. The scheme SIdent $=($ Setup, Extract, NwSt, Enc, Dec) is described as follows.

Setup: Given a security parameter $\kappa \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$, the algorithm works as follows: (1) Run the BDH generator on input $\kappa$ to generate a prime $q$, two groups $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ of order $q$, and a pairing $\hat{e}: G_{1} \times G_{1} \rightarrow G_{2}$. Also choose a random generator $P \in G_{1}$. (2) Pick $s \stackrel{\oiint}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$ and $P_{p u b} \leftarrow s P$. (3) Choose two cryptographic hash function $H_{1}:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow G_{1}^{*}$, and $H_{2}: G_{2} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{k}$, where $n$ is identity length and $k$ is the key length of the symmetric encryption scheme.
The public parameters params $:=\left(q, G_{1}, G_{2}, \hat{e}, P, P_{\text {pub }}\right.$, $\left.n, k, H_{1}, H_{2}\right)$ and master secrete key $m s k:=s$.

Extract: Given the master secret key $s$ and an identity $I D \in$ $\{0,1\}^{n}$, the algorithm computes $Q_{I D} \leftarrow H_{1}(I D), S K_{I D} \leftarrow$ $s Q_{I D}$, and outputs $S K_{I D}$ as the private key for identity $I D$.

NwSt: Given the public parameter params, the algorithm picks $r \stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\leftarrow} Z_{q}^{*}$ and outputs ( $r P, r P_{p u b}$ ) as the state of the scheme.

Enc: Given params, an identity $I D$, a message $m \in\{0,1\}^{*}$, and an encryption state $s t$, the algorithm does as follows: (1) parses st as $\left(R, R^{\prime}\right)$, (2) computes $Q_{I D} \leftarrow H_{1}(I D)$, (3) sets $K \leftarrow H_{2}\left(Q_{I D}, R, \hat{e}\left(Q_{I D}, R^{\prime}\right)\right)$, and (4) computes $C \stackrel{\S}{\leftarrow}$ $\left(R, S E n c_{K}(m)\right)$. The algorithm returns the ciphertext $C$ and the unmodified state st.
Dec: To decrypt ciphertext $C$ under identity $I D$ and its corresponding private key $S K_{I D}$ does the following: (1) parse C as $\left(S, C_{s}\right)$, (2) compute $Q_{I D} \leftarrow H_{1}(I D)$ and $K \leftarrow$
$H_{2}\left(Q_{I D}, S, \hat{e}\left(S K_{I D}, S\right)\right)$, and (3) output $S D e c_{K}\left(C_{s}\right)$ (may be reject).

This completes the description of SIdent. Its correctness comes from the fact that the symmetric key $K$ is the same in both encryption and decryption algorithms when everything is computed as above, since $\hat{e}\left(Q_{I D}, R^{\prime}\right)=\hat{e}\left(s Q_{I D}, r P\right)=$ $\hat{e}\left(S K_{I D}, R\right)$.
It is worth noting that in NwSt, $r$ is not output. This is natural as done in most encryption schemes, and is in sharp contrast with all the PKE schemes in [2]. The reason we can omit $r$ comes from the advantage of having the state rely on system-wide parameters params. Indeed, the value $P_{p u b}$ is in params, so we can use $r P_{p u b}$ as a part of the state. This will be impossible in a PKE related to SIdent below, since $P_{p u b}$ will become a part of recipient's public key.
It appears that the encryption algorithm Enc is deterministic, but it does not. The randomness for the encryption comes from the (IND-CCA secure) symmetric encryption algorithm SEnc, which is an important component leads to the following result.

Theorem 1. Consider SIdent associated to BDH generator $\mathcal{G}$ and symmetric encryption scheme $S E$ as above, and suppose the hash functions $H_{1}, H_{2}$ are random oracles. Then SIdent is IND-sID-CCA secure. More precisely, let $A$ be an IND-sID-CCA adversary against SIdent, then there are GapBDH adversary $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ with respect to $\mathcal{G}$, and adversary $A_{S E}$ against $S E$, whose running times are essentially the same as that of $A$, such that
$A d v_{\text {SIdent }}^{i n d-s i d-c c a}(A) \leq A d v_{\mathcal{G}}^{g a p-b d h}\left(A_{\mathcal{G}}\right)+A d v_{S E}^{i n d-c c a}\left(A_{S E}\right)$.
The proof ideas of the theorem are as follows: we first show that an attack against SIdent is reduced to an attack against a stateful PKE scheme (defined below), by considering $H_{1}$ as a random oracle. Then by modeling $H_{2}$ as a random oracle, we reduce the attack against that stateful PKE scheme to solving the Gap-BDH problem and attacking the underlying symmetric encryption scheme. Although the roadmap of the proof is the same as Boneh-Franklin [4], the proof details are completely different, which we will see later.

Proof. Recall that in the IND-sID-CCA game, $A$ has to commit a target identity $I D^{*}$ at the beginning of the game, before Setup is run. And in stateful setting, $A$ further can ask queries of the form $(I D, m)$ to an encryption oracle, as defined in Section 2. We first want to make the stateful IND-sID-CCA game simpler by using a nice feature of SIdent, so that all identities used in the encryption oracle are only the identity $I D^{*}$. Indeed, suppose $A$ submits $(I D, m)$, where $I D \neq I D^{*}$, as an encryption query. In this case, $A$ also can know $S K_{I D}$ by the key extraction oracle, so that it is able to encrypt $m$ itself as follows: $K \leftarrow$ $H_{2}\left(H_{1}(I D), R, \hat{e}\left(S K_{I D}, R\right)\right), C \leftarrow\left(R, S E n c_{K}(m)\right)$, where $R$ is the first part of the encryption state. The point now is how A obtains $R$, but this is easy since $A$ just makes an encryption query (not a challenge query) like ( $I D^{*}$, "Get $R$ ") in order to get $R$. The reasoning thus far enables us to assume without weakening adversary's ability that $A$ only makes queries of the form $\left(I D^{*}, \cdot\right)$ to the encryption oracle. The following Lemma 1 will take advantage of this fact, and the theorem follows directly from Lemma 1 and Lemma 2 below.
Before going further stating and proving Lemmas 1 and 2, we first define a stateful PKE scheme, related to the

IBE SIdent, called $S P u b=(S P u b . S e t u p, S P u b$. Keygen, SPub.NwSt, SPub.Enc, SPub.Dec), using the same building blocks as the IBE SIdent. The components of SPub are described as follows.
The algorithm SPub.Setup takes a parameter $\kappa$ as input, and returns $s p=\left(\left(q, G_{1}, G_{2}, \hat{e}\right), P, H_{2}\right)$, which respectively consists of the output of the BDH generator $\mathcal{G}$, a random generator of group $G_{1}$, and a hash function from $G_{2}$ to $\{0,1\}^{k}$. With that $s p$ as input, SPub.Keygen chooses $s \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{q}, Q \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} G_{1}$, and sets $P_{p u b} \leftarrow s P$, and finally returns $p k=\left(P_{p u b}, Q\right)$ as the public-key, and $s k=s Q$ as the secret key. With the parameter $s p$ as input, the algorithm SPub. NwSt chooses $r \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{q}$, sets $R \leftarrow r P$, and returns $s t=(r, R)$ as encryption state. SPub.Enc takes as input the parameter $s p$, public key $p k=\left(P_{p u b}, Q\right)$, a message $m$, and the encryption state $s t=(r, R)$; it then computes $K \leftarrow H_{2}\left(Q, R, \hat{e}\left(Q, P_{p u b}\right)^{r}\right)$, lets the ciphertext be $C \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\left(R, S E n c_{K}(m)\right)$ and finally returns both $C$ and the unchanged state st. SPub.Dec takes $s p, p k, s k=s Q$ and a ciphertext $C=\left(S, C_{s}\right)$ as input, and computes symmetric $K \leftarrow H_{2}(Q, S, \hat{e}(s k, S))$ and outputs $S D e c_{K}\left(C_{s}\right)$. This completes the description of stateful PKE SPub, whose correctness is checked similarly as the stateful IBE SIdent.
The purpose of changing SIdent to $S P u b$ is to show that the key extraction queries do not help the adversary against SIdent. Indeed, we will show that any attack against SIdent is reduced to an attack against $S P u b$. (The attack against $S P u b$ will be compactly presented in Lemma 1 below.) The idea of changing an IBE scheme to a PKE scheme was used to prove the security of (non-stateful) BasicIdent [4], but the proof of Boneh-Franklin and the proof here are quite different, and we will comment about the differences after the following lemma:

Lemma 1. Let $H_{1}:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow G_{1}^{*}$ be a random oracle, and $A$ is an ind-sid-cca adversary against SIdent. Then there exists an adversary $B$ against $S P u b$, whose running time is essentially the same as that of $A$, such that

$$
A d v_{\text {SIdent }}^{i n d-s i d-c c a}(A)=A d v_{S P u b}^{i n d-c c a}(B),
$$

where the right-hand side is defined as follows

$$
A d v_{S P u b}^{i n d-c c a}(B)=\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[b^{\prime}=b\right]-\frac{1}{2}\right|
$$

in the following experiment: $b \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\} ; b^{\prime} \leftarrow B^{\text {in game } \mathrm{G}}$; where the game $G$ plays with algorithm $B$ as follows: given parameter $\kappa$, the game first sets up: sp $\stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{SPub} \cdot \operatorname{Setup}(\kappa)$; $(p k, s k) \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}$ SPub.Keygen $(s p) ;$ st $\stackrel{₫}{\stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\leftarrow} S P u b . N w S t(s p) . \text { The }}$ game then gives $B$ the parameter $\kappa, s p$, and public key $p k$. $B$ in turn has access to oracles $\operatorname{SPub} \cdot \operatorname{Enc}(s p, p k, \cdot, s t)^{2}$, $\operatorname{LOR}(s p, p k, \cdot, \cdot, b, s t)^{3}, S P u b . \operatorname{Dec}(s p, s k, \cdot)^{4}$. B can query the first and third oracles many times, but just one time to the second left-or-right LOR oracle. The first and second oracle outputs are a ciphertext and a state, but only the ciphertext is given to $B$. In addition, $B$ cannot submit the output of LOR oracle to the third decryption oracle. ${ }^{5}$

[^2]The proof of this lemma is quite simple and is in Appendix A. The reduction in Lemma 1 is tight, as opposed to its counterpart in [4]. The point is, taking advantage of the selective-ID game, the adversary $B$ is able to simulate the environment for $A$ in a usual manner, avoiding Coron's technique [6] which made the reduction loose in [4].
Thanks to the fact that hash function $H_{2}$ can be seen as a random oracle, we have the following lemma.

Lemma 2. Consider the adversary $B$ playing with game $G$ as defined in Lemma 1, and suppose that $H_{2}$ is a random oracle. Then

$$
A d v_{S P u b}^{i n d-c c a}(B) \leq A d v_{\mathcal{G}}^{g a p-b d h}\left(A_{\mathcal{G}}\right)+A d v_{S E}^{i n d-c c a}\left(A_{S E}\right),
$$

where $A_{\mathcal{G}}, A_{S E}$ are respectively the Gap-BDH adversary, and the adversary against symmetric encryption scheme $S E$.

The proof of this lemma, which is a bit intricate, is in Appendix B. The crux of it is as follows. Let $K^{*}=H_{2}(Q$, $\left.R, \hat{e}\left(Q, P_{p u b}\right)^{r}\right)$, where $R=r P$, be the (same) symmetric key in the oracles $S P u b . E n c(s p, p k, \cdot, s t)$ and $\operatorname{LOR}(s p, p k$, $\cdot, \cdot, b, s t)$. We show that $K^{*}$ is indistinguishable from a random key, based on the Gap-BDH assumption. With the random key, the security of $S P u b$ then comes from the security of the symmetric encryption scheme $S E$.

## 4. FROM SELECTIVE-ID TO FULL SECURITY

Theorem 1 gives us an IND-sID-CCA secure stateful IBE scheme, but our goal is an IND-ID-CCA secure one. Results about transformation from selective-identity security to full security for non-stateful schemes are known in the literature [1]. To reach the goal without making unsubstantiated claims, we present in this section a generic way to transform an IND-sID-CCA secure stateful scheme to an IND-ID-CCA one. We first need some notations. Let $\Pi$ is a stateful IBE scheme where all identities are bit strings of length $n$, and $H$ be a hash function from $\{0,1\}^{*}$ to $\{0,1\}^{n}$. We denote by $\Pi_{H}$ the stateful IBE scheme derived from $\Pi$ by first hashing an arbitrary length identity, and then using $\Pi$ with the hash string. Note that by this method, all identities in $\Pi_{H}$ are of arbitrary length.
We say that a stateful IBE is $\left(t, q_{e x t r}, q_{e}, q_{d}, \epsilon\right)$ IND-sIDCCA secure (respectively, IND-ID-CCA secure) if no adversary with time complexity $t$, asking $q_{\text {extr }}$ key extraction queries, $q_{e}$ encryption queries, and $q_{d}$ decryption queries has advantage (larger than) $\epsilon$ in the IND-sID-CCA game (respectively, IND-ID-CCA game). The security of $\Pi_{H}$ is ensured by the following theorem.

Theorem 2. Model $H$ as a random oracle. If $\Pi$ is $\left(t, q_{e x t r}\right.$, $\left.q_{e}, q_{d}, \epsilon\right)$ IND-sID-CCA secure, then $\Pi_{H}$ is $\left(t, q_{e x t r}, q_{e}, q_{d}\right.$, $\epsilon^{\prime}$ ) IND-ID-CCA secure with

$$
\epsilon^{\prime}=\epsilon\left(q_{H}+q_{e}\right)\left(1-\frac{q_{e x t r}+q_{d}}{2^{n}}\right)^{-1} \simeq \epsilon\left(q_{H}+q_{e}\right),
$$

where $q_{H}$ is the number of calls to $H$.
stateful PKE schemes [2], except that the ability of adversary $B$ is restricted: $B$ can only gain encrypted messages under one challenge public-key $p k$, rather than its maliciouslychosen public keys as in [2]. Both SPub and this notion just serve as a "bridge" for the proof of Theorem 1.

The proof of this theorem is in Appendix C.
Combining Theorems 1 and 2 lets us conclude that the scheme SIdent $H_{H}$ is fully secure under the Gap-BDH assumption, as stated in the following theorem.

Theorem 3. The notions are as in Theorems 1 and 2. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
A d v_{\text {SIdent }_{H}}^{i n d-i d-c c a}(A) & \left(q_{H}+q_{e}\right) A d v_{\mathcal{G}}^{g a p-b d h}\left(A_{\mathcal{G}}\right) \\
& +\left(q_{H}+q_{e}\right) A d v_{S E}^{i n d-c c a}\left(A_{S E}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark that SIdent $H_{H}$ deals with identities of arbitrary length. Indeed, in SIdent ${ }_{H}$, an identity $I D \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ is first hashed to $\{0,1\}^{n}$ by $H$, and then $H(I D)$ is processed by $H_{1}:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow G_{1}^{*}$. The whole process can be seen as $H_{1} \circ$ $H:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow G_{1}^{*}$, which can be seen as one hash function. From the light of Theorem 3, all words SIdent in Section 1 should be precisely replaced by SIdent ${ }_{H}$, since SIdent is not exactly fully secure. We however use SIdent for discussion in Section 1, for the sake of simplicity, and because the both schemes are the same except a hash function for identity.

Note that in practice, $q_{e}$, the number of oracle queries to the encryption oracle which uses the same state for encrypting is not large, compared to the number of hash queries $q_{H}$. We can thus assume that $q_{e} \ll q_{H}$, and hence the factor loss in the security reduction in Theorem 3 can be approximately considered as $q_{H}$. This value was used in the comparison with FullIdent in Section 1.

## 5. CONCLUSION

We have examined the definition of stateful IBE scheme, its corresponding security notions, and a concrete stateful IBE SIdent, which is IND-ID-CCA secure with tighter security reduction to the Gap-BDH assumption, and which is efficient in both encryption and decryption. Furthermore, it produces very short ciphetexts.

The scheme SIdent is considered in ROM. It is interesting to ask whether there are stateful IBE schemes whose securities are proven in standard model (i.e., not ROM).

## 6. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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## APPENDIX

## A. PROOF OF LEMMA 1

Proof. Let $A$ be an ind-sid-cca adversary against the scheme SIdent, we will build the adversary $B$, who controls the random oracle $H_{1}$ and plays with the game $G$ as defined above. $B$ runs $A$ and simulates the environment for $A$ as follows. It first gives $A$ the security parameter $\kappa$ and lets $A$ output a target identity $I D^{*} \in\{0,1\}^{n}$. It then gives $A$ the tuple $\left(q, G_{1}, G_{2}, \hat{e}, P, P_{\text {pub }}, n, k, H_{1}, H_{2}\right)$ as params, since it has $s p=\left(q, G_{1}, G_{2}, \hat{e}, P, H_{2}\right)$ and the public key $p k=\left(P_{p u b}, Q\right)$, both of which received from the game $G$. (The value $n, k$ are known from the description of $H_{1}, H_{2}$.) Note $Q$ is not given to $A$ and we will take advantage of this fact later. The adversary $A$ makes many oracle queries, which are in turn handled by $B$, as follows:

- $H_{1}$-oracle query $I D$ : If $I D=I D^{*}$, then $B$ returns $Q_{I D^{*}}=Q$ to $A$. Otherwise, if $I D$ was not queried before, $B$ picks $b_{I D} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{q}$, and returns $Q_{I D} \leftarrow b_{I D} P$ to $A$. $B$ also keeps a record of all asked $\left(I D, Q_{I D}, b_{I D}\right)$ by a data structure $H_{1}^{\text {list }}$ and uses this structure to answer identical repeated queries.
- Key extraction query $I D\left(\neq I D^{*}\right): B$ takes the corresponding $\left(I D, Q_{I D}, b_{I D}\right)$ from $H_{1}^{\text {list }}$. (If such a record was not existed yet, $B$ just goes ahead and calls the $H_{1}$ oracle algorithm so that the record exists. $B$ can do so because it controls the random oracle $H_{1}$.) Then, $B$ returns to $A$ the value $b_{I D} P_{p u b}\left(=b_{I D}(s P)=s Q_{I D}\right)$, which is a legitimate private key for the identity $I D$.
- Encryption query $m$ (only under $I D^{*}$ ): $B$ takes $m$ from $A$ and gives the message to its own encryption oracle $S P u b . E n c(s p, p k, \cdot, s t)$ to receive a ciphertext of the form $\left(r P, S E n c_{K^{*}}(m)\right.$ ), where $K^{*}$ is internally computed as $H_{2}\left(Q, r P, \hat{e}\left(Q, P_{p u b}\right)^{r}\right)\left(=H_{2}\left(Q_{I D^{*}}, r P, \hat{e}\left(Q_{I D^{*}}, r P_{p u b}\right)\right)\right)$ by the encryption oracle. $B$ then returns ( $\left.r P, S E n c_{K^{*}}(m)\right)$ to $A$.
- (One) challenge query ( $m_{0}, m_{1}$ ) (under $I D^{*}$ ): $B$ gives ( $m_{0}, m_{1}$ ) to its $\operatorname{LOR}(s p, p k, \cdot \cdot \cdot, b, s t)$ oracle to obtain ( $r P$, $\left.S E n c_{K^{*}}\left(m_{b}\right)\right)\left(K^{*}\right.$ is as above). $B$ then returns $C^{*}=(r P$, $\left.S E n c_{K^{*}}\left(m_{b}\right)\right)$ to $A$.
- Decryption query ( $I D^{*}, C$ ), where $C \neq C^{*}$ : $B$ feeds $C$ into its decryption oracle $S P u b . \operatorname{Dec}(s p, s k, \cdot)$, then takes and forwards the output to $A$. This decryption simulation is legitimate since the symmetric key in $S P u b . \operatorname{Dec}(s p, s k, \cdot)$ after feeding $C=\left(S, C_{s}\right)$ is $H_{2}(Q, S, \hat{e}(s Q, S))$, which is exactly the symmetric key to decrypt $C$ under $I D^{*}$ in SIdent.
Note that in the above simulation, the IBE's state is considered as $\left(r P, r P_{p u b}\right)$, while the PKE's state is $(r, r P)$. The simulation is perfect from the viewpoint of the adversary $A$.

Finally, $A$ returns a bit $b^{\prime}$, which is in turns output by $B$. From the fact that the simulation is perfect and the outputs are the same, we have

$$
A d v_{\text {SIdent }}^{i n d-s i d-c c a}(A)=A d v_{S P u b}^{i n d-c c a}(B),
$$

which concludes the proof of Lemma 1.

## B. PROOF OF LEMMA 2

Proof. We will prove the lemma via games $G_{0}$ and $G_{1}$ as defined as follows.
Let game $G_{0}$ be the original attack game, where $B$ plays in game $G$ as mentioned in Lemma 1. Recall that $K^{*}=$ $H_{2}\left(Q, R, \hat{e}\left(Q, P_{p u b}\right)^{r}\right)$, where $R=r P$, is the (same) symmetric key in the oracle $\operatorname{SPub} . \operatorname{Enc}(s p, p k, \cdot, s t)$ and the oracle $\operatorname{LOR}(s p, p k, \cdot, \cdot, b, s t)$. In addition, when $B$ asks a decryption query $C=\left(S, C_{s}\right)$, game $G_{0}$ uses the key $K^{*}$ to decrypt $C_{s}$ if $S=R$; otherwise it uses $K=H_{2}(Q, S, \hat{e}(s Q, S))$. The change is just to rephrase game $G_{0}$, and does not affect the view of $B$.

Game $G_{1}$ is the same as $G_{0}$, except that the key $K^{*}$ is now picked at random: $K^{*} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{k}$. Let $F$ be the event that $B$ queries $H_{2}$ at $\left(Q, R, \hat{e}\left(Q, P_{p u b}\right)^{r}\right)$ in game $G_{1}$. It is clear that games $G_{0}$ and $G_{1}$ are identical until $F$ occurs. In particular, it follows that $T_{0} \wedge \bar{F}=T_{1} \wedge \bar{F}$ where $T_{0}$ and $T_{1}$ are the events the guess bit $b^{\prime}$ is equal to the challenge bit $b$ in games $G_{0}$ and $G_{1}$, respectively. Thus, by the Difference Lemma [13],

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[T_{0}\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[T_{1}\right]\right| \leq \operatorname{Pr}[F] . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We first claim that

$$
\begin{align*}
\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[T_{1}\right]-\frac{1}{2}\right| & =A d v_{S E}^{i n d-c c a}\left(A_{S E}\right)  \tag{2}\\
\operatorname{Pr}[F] & =A d v_{\mathcal{G}}^{g a p-b d h}\left(A_{\mathcal{G}}\right) \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

Note that $A d v_{S P u b}^{i n d-c c a}(B)=\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[T_{0}\right]-\frac{1}{2}\right|$ by definition, and Lemma 2 comes directly from (1), (2), and (3). It now suffices to justify the above claims.
We first justify (2). Intuitively, it comes from the fact that $K^{*}$ is now truly random in game $G_{1}$ and hence $S E n c_{K^{*}}\left(m_{b}\right)$
gives no information about the challenge bit $b$ if $S E$ is INDCCA secure. Formally, $A_{S E}$ takes the parameter $\kappa$ as input, uses $B$ as a subroutine, and outputs what $B$ outputs (which is the guess bit $b^{\prime}$ ). Using $\kappa, A_{S E}$ itself generates all the parameters for $B$ and, in particular, it knows the encryption state $(r, R)$ and the secret key $s Q$. $A_{S E}$, by definition, furthermore has access to oracles $\operatorname{SEnc}\left(K^{*}, \cdot\right), \operatorname{LOR}\left(K^{*}, \cdot, \cdot, b\right)$, $\operatorname{SDec}\left(K^{*}, \cdot\right)$ ( $K^{*}$ is suggestively used here.) Utilizing these oracles, $A_{S E}$ returns $\left(R, S E n c\left(K^{*}, m\right)\right)$, and ( $R, \operatorname{LOR}\left(K^{*}\right.$, $\left.m_{0}, m_{1}, b\right)$ ) respectively when $B$ makes encryption query $m$ and challenge query $\left(m_{0}, m_{1}\right)$. When $B$ asks a decryption query ( $S, C_{s}$ ), $A_{S E}$ returns $S D e c_{K^{*}}\left(C_{s}\right)$ if $S=R$ and otherwise returns $S D e c_{K}\left(C_{s}\right)$ where $K=H_{2}(Q, R, \hat{e}(s Q, S))$. Thus $A_{S E}$ perfectly simulates the environment for $B$ in game $G_{1}$, and forces $B$ to guess the bit $b$ in $\operatorname{LOR}\left(K^{*}, \cdot, \cdot, b\right)$. The advantage of $A_{S E}$ is $\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[b^{\prime}=b\right]-1 / 2\right|$ by definition, which is exactly $\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[T_{1}\right]-1 / 2\right|$. Equation (2) follows.
We now justify (3), which is more challenging. We will construct $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ solving the Gap-BDH problem, making use of $B$ as a subroutine. The input of $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ is an instance ( $q$, $\left.G_{1}, G_{2}, \hat{e}\right)$ and random points ( $P, a P, b P, c P$ ) and it will output $\hat{e}(P, P)^{a b c}$ with the help of a DBDH oracle $\mathcal{O}_{d b d h}$, provided that the event $F$ occurs. $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ runs $B$ giving $s p=$ $\left(q, G_{1}, G_{2}, \hat{e}\right)$ to $B$ as security parameter. It then puts $P_{p u b}=$ $a P, Q=b P$ and set $R=c P$. The public key is $p k=$ $\left(P_{p u b}, Q\right)$, and the state is considered as st $=(c, R)$ (Although $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ does not know $a, b, c$ and $s k=a b P$.) $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ also picks key $K^{*} \stackrel{\uplus}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{k}$ and random bit $b \stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}$. Note that $F$ is now the event that $B$ queries ( $\left.b P, c P, \hat{e}(b P, a P)^{c}\right)$ to $H_{2}$. The way which $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ handles encryption queries $m$ (to $\operatorname{SPub} . E n c(s p, p k, \cdot, s t)$ ) and challenge query ( $m_{0}, m_{1}$ ) (to $\operatorname{LOR}(s p, p k, \cdot, \cdot, b, s t)$ ) is quite simple: it just returns ( $R$, $S E n c_{K^{*}}(m)$ ) and ( $R, \operatorname{SEnc}_{K^{*}}\left(m_{b}\right)$ ) respectively to $B$.
Processing hash queries and decryption queries is however a bit intricate. Borrowing a technique originally used in [12], $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ manages the following lists, which is initially empty:
$-\mathcal{V}_{1}$ : contains tuples of the form $(T, S, e, K) \in G_{1}^{2} \times G_{2} \times$ $\{0,1\}^{k}$ for which $K$ is the reply of the query ( $T, S, e$ ) to $H_{2}$. $-\mathcal{V}_{2}$ : contains tuples of the form $(T, S, e)$ for which $(T, S$, $e, K) \in \mathcal{V}_{1}$ for some $K \in\{0,1\}^{k}$ and $\mathcal{O}_{d b d h}\left(P, T, S, P_{p u b}, e\right)$ $=1$ (namely, $\left(P, T, S, P_{p u b}, e\right)$ is a BDH tuple.)

- $\mathcal{V}_{3}$ : contains tuples of the form $(S, K)$ for which $K$ is the reply of the query $(Q, S, \hat{e}(s k, S)$ ), where $s k=a b P$, to $H_{2}$.

Intuitively, $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ uses $\mathcal{V}_{1}, \mathcal{V}_{2}, \mathcal{V}_{3}$ to handle both random oracle queries and decryption queries from $B$. The list $\mathcal{V}_{1}$ keeps records of all asked queries to $H_{2}$, and $\mathcal{V}_{2}$ is related to BDH tuples in $\mathcal{V}_{1} . \mathcal{V}_{3}$ is for processing decryption queries $\left(S, C_{s}\right)$. Note that the symmetric key for decryption is $H_{2}(Q, S$, $\hat{e}(s k, S)$ ), and given $S$, the value $\hat{e}(s k, S)$ is fixed, although unknown to $A_{\mathcal{G}}$. Knowing the value $S$ is enough for simulation, so it is kept in $\mathcal{V}_{3}$. Symmetric keys $K$ may be added into both independent lists $\mathcal{V}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{V}_{3}$, so $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ must carefully check the both lists before returning new keys to $B$. $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ now processes hash and decryption queries from $B$ as follows.

- Hash oracle query $(T, S, e)$ to $H_{2}: A_{\mathcal{G}}$ checks if ( $T, S$, $e, K) \in \mathcal{V}_{1}$ for some $K$. If so, $K$ is returned to $B$. Otherwise, $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ uses the oracle $\mathcal{O}_{d b d h}$ to check whether $\left(P, T, S, P_{p u b}, e\right)$ is a BDH tuple.
- If so: $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ first checks whether $T=Q(=b P)$ and $S=R(=c P)$. If this is the case (and hence the event $F$ occurs), then $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ halts and outputs
$e$; otherwise it adds $(T, S, e)$ to $\mathcal{V}_{2}$ and furthermore checks whether $(S, K)$ is in $\mathcal{V}_{3}$ for some $K$. If so, $K$ is returned to $B$ and $(T, S, e, K)$ is added to $\mathcal{V}_{1}$; otherwise a random key $K \in\{0,1\}^{k}$ is chosen, and ( $T, S, e, K$ ) is added to $\mathcal{V}_{1}$.
- If not: a key $K \in\{0,1\}^{k}$ is chosen at random, and ( $T, S, e, K$ ) is added to $\mathcal{V}_{1}$.
- Decryption query $C=\left(S, C_{s}\right)$ (to $S P u b . \operatorname{Dec}(s p, s k, \cdot)$ ): If $(Q, S, e) \in \mathcal{V}_{2}$ for some $e$, then $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ takes the corresponding $(Q, S, e, K) \in \mathcal{V}_{1}$, and returns $S \operatorname{Dec}_{K}\left(C_{s}\right)$ to $B$. Otherwise, $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ checks whether ( $S, K$ ) is in $\mathcal{V}_{3}$ for some $K$; if so, then $S D e c_{K}\left(C_{s}\right)$ is returned to $B$, and if that is not the case, then $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ chooses $K \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{k}$ and returns $S D e c_{K}\left(C_{s}\right)$ to $B$.
$A_{\mathcal{G}}$ thus perfectly mimics the environment for $B$. As seen in the simulation of $H_{2}$, whenever the event $F$ occurs, $A_{\mathcal{G}}$ will output $e=\hat{e}(P, P)^{a b c}$, which is the Gap-BDH solution. Equation (3) follows.


## C. PROOF OF THEOREM 2

Proof. Let $A$ be an adversary attacking $\Pi_{H}$, and its has advantage $\epsilon^{\prime}=\epsilon\left(q_{H}+q_{e}\right)\left(1-\frac{q_{e x t r}+q_{d}}{2^{n}}\right)^{-1}$ in the IND-IDCCA game. We will build an adversary $B$ using $A$ as a subroutine, and B's advantage in the IND-sID-CCA game is $\epsilon$. $B$ first chooses an index $j \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\left\{1, \ldots, q_{H}+q_{e x t r}+q_{e}+q_{d}\right\}$ and sets a counter ctr $\leftarrow 0$. Since $B$ is in the selectiveID game, it chooses $i d^{*} \stackrel{\leftarrow}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{n}$ and outputs the string as the "target" identity. $B$ then receives params from the game, and feeds this parameter to $A$. $B$ simulates the environment for $A$ as follows.

- Hash oracle query $I D \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ : We assume wlog that $A$ never repeats a hash query and if $A$ makes the other queries (below) related to an identity, it has already made a corresponding hash query. $B$ first sets $c t r \leftarrow c t r+1$ and puts $I D_{c t r}=I D$. If $c t r=j$, then $B$ returns $i d^{*} ;$ otherwise, it returns $i d \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{n}$.
- Key extraction query $I D$ : We know that $I D=I D_{i}$ and $H(I D)=i d_{i} \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ for some $1 \leq i \leq q_{H}+q_{\text {extr }}+q_{e}+q_{d}$. If $i d_{i} \neq i d^{*}$ then $B$ forwards $i d_{i}$ to its own key extraction oracle, obtains back the private key corresponding to $i d_{i}$, and gives the key to $A$. However, in the unlikely event that $i d_{i}=i d^{*}, B$ cannot respond to this query, so it halts and outputs a random bit as a guess of the challenge bit $b$ of the game.
- Encryption query $(I D, m): B$ forwards $(H(I D), m)$ to its own encryption oracle, gets back the ciphertext and returns it to $A$.
- Challenge query $\left(I D^{*}, m_{0}, m_{1}\right)$ : We know that $I D^{*}=$ $I D_{k}$ and $H\left(I D^{*}\right)=i d_{k} \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ for some $1 \leq k \leq q_{H}+$ $q_{\text {extr }}+q_{e}+q_{d}$. If $k=j$ (and hence $i d_{k}=i d^{*}$ ), $B$ forwards ( $m_{0}, m_{1}$ ) to its own challenger, receives back the challenge ciphertext $C^{*}$ and gives it to $A$. Otherwise, namely $k \neq j$, $B$ halts and outputs a random bit.
- Decryption query $(I D, C)\left(\neq\left(I D^{*}, C^{*}\right)\right)$ : We know that $I D=I D_{k}$ and $H(I D)=i d_{k} \in\{0,1\}^{n}$ for some $1 \leq k \leq$ $q_{H}+q_{e x t r}+q_{e}+q_{d}$. If $i d_{k} \neq i d^{*}$ or $C \neq C^{*}$ then $B$ forwards $\left(i d_{k}, C\right)$ to its own decryption oracle, gets back the result and gives it to $A$. Otherwise, $B$ halts and outputs a random bit.

Finally, if $B$ does not halt as above, it outputs what $A$ outputs. This ends the description of $B$.

We begin to analyze $B$ 's advantage in guessing the challenge bit $b$. Denote $b^{\prime}$ the output of $B$, which is either a random bit or $A$ 's output. We call NoHalt the event that $B$ does not halt before $A$ 's output. It is clear that if the event NoHalt occurs, then $B$ perfectly simulates the environment for $A$, and the output of $B$ is exactly the output of $A$, so that $\mid \operatorname{Pr}\left[b^{\prime}=b \mid\right.$ NoHalt $] \mid-1 / 2=\epsilon^{\prime}$. On the other hand, if the event $\overline{\text { NoHalt }}$ occurs, then the output of $B$ is random, so that we have $\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[b^{\prime}=b \mid \overline{\text { NoHalt }}\right]\right|=1 / 2$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A d v_{\Pi}^{\text {ind-sid-cca }}(B)=\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[b^{\prime}=b\right]-\frac{1}{2}\right| \\
=\quad & \mid \operatorname{Pr}\left[b^{\prime}=b \mid \text { NoHalt }\right] \operatorname{Pr}[\text { NoHalt }] \\
+ & \operatorname{Pr}\left[b^{\prime}=b\left|\overline{\text { NoHalt }]} \operatorname{Pr}[\overline{\text { NoHalt }}]-\frac{1}{2}\right|\right. \\
= & \left.\left\lvert\,\left(\epsilon^{\prime}+\frac{1}{2}\right) \operatorname{Pr}[\text { NoHalt }]+\frac{1}{2}(1-\operatorname{Pr}[\text { NoHalt }])-\frac{1}{2}\right. \right\rvert\, \\
=\quad & \epsilon^{\prime} \operatorname{Pr}[\text { NoHalt }] .
\end{aligned}
$$

We now estimate $\operatorname{Pr}[$ NoHalt $]$. Additionally denote NoHalt ${ }_{1}$ the event that $B$ does not halt while processing the challenge query, and $\mathrm{NoHalt}_{2}$ the events that $B$ does not halt while processing the other queries. We have NoHalt $=\mathrm{NoHalt}_{1} \cap$ NoHalt ${ }_{2}$ and hence

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{NoHalt}^{2}\right]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{NoHalt}_{2}\right] \operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{NoHalt}_{1} \mid \mathrm{NoHalt}_{2}\right] .
$$

We now proceed to compute $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{NoHalt}_{1} \mid \mathrm{NoHalt}_{2}\right]$. Note that $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{NoHalt}_{1} \mid \mathrm{NoHalt}_{2}\right]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[k=j \mid \mathrm{NoHalt}_{2}\right]$. The conditional event NoHalt ${ }_{2}$ implies that $k \neq j$ while $B$ processes extraction and decryption queries, so that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[k=j \mid \text { NoHalt }_{2}\right] & =\frac{1}{\left(q_{H}+q_{e x t r}+q_{e}+q_{d}\right)-\left(q_{e x t r}+q_{d}\right)} \\
& =\frac{1}{q_{H}+q_{e}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { NoHalt }_{1} \mid \text { NoHalt }_{2}\right]=\frac{1}{q_{H}+q_{e}}
$$

We now compute $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{NoHalt}_{2}\right]$. The event $\mathrm{NoHalt}_{2}$ means $B$ does not halt while processing extraction queries and decryption queries, which in turn means that $i d_{i} \neq i d^{*}$ for all $i d_{i}$ appeared in the queries. Since $i d^{*}$ is chosen randomly from $\{0,1\}^{n}$, we have $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{NoHalt}_{2}\right]=1-\frac{q_{\text {extr }}+q_{d}}{2^{n}}$.
Thus, $\operatorname{Pr}[$ NoHalt $]=\frac{1}{q_{H}+q_{e}}\left(1-\frac{q_{e x t r}+q_{d}}{2^{n}}\right)$, and hence

$$
A d v_{\Pi}^{i n d-s i d-c c a}(B)=\epsilon^{\prime} \operatorname{Pr}[\text { NoHalt }]=\epsilon,
$$

which concludes the proof.


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[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ who receives a message $m$.
    ${ }^{3}$ who receives two equal-length messages $m_{0}, m_{1}$ and then encrypts $m_{b}$.
    ${ }^{4}$ who receives a ciphertext $C$.
    ${ }^{5}$ This notion is similar to the definition of IND-CCA for

